

Original Research Article

Fertilization With Silicon in Sweet Pepper improved Plants Grown Under Salt Stress

ABSTRACT

Aims: The objective of this research was to investigate the effect of calcium silicate on gaseous exchanges and production factors in the sweet pepper, cultivated under conditions of soil salinity induced by potassium fertilization, in protected cultivation.

Study design: The experiment was arranged in a randomized complete block design in a 2 × 5 factorial scheme with five replications.

Place and Duration of Study: The experiment was conducted in the sector of Olericultura and Experimentation of the course of Agronomy from October 12, 2018 to February 2019.

Methodology: The experiment was arranged in a randomized complete block design in a 2 × 5 factorial scheme (two sources of correction: limestone and silicon and five increasing doses of KCl equivalent to 150, 300, 450, 600 and 700 kg ha⁻¹ of K₂O). Ten treatments with five replicates where each experimental unit consisted of a polyethylene pot, with a volume of 19 dm³. The electrical conductivity, the determination and quantification of silicon in soil and plant, liquid photosynthesis, stomatal conductance, intercellular CO₂ concentration, transpiration, water use efficiency and instantaneous carboxylation efficiency were analyzed.

Results: With the increase of K₂O in the soil there was a tendency of reduction in liquid photosynthesis, transpiration, stomatal conductance, intercellular CO₂ concentration, water use efficiency and instantaneous carboxylation efficiency in the presence and absence of calcium silicate. Higher doses of K₂O (300, 450 and 600 kg ha⁻¹) reduced the length and yield of sweet pepper fruits in the presence and absence of calcium silicate. The dose of 150 Kg K₂O favored the growth of sweet pepper plants in the presence of calcium silicate.

Conclusion: In the culture of sweet pepper in protected cultivation, the increase in the rates of potassium fertilization increases the electrical conductivity of the soil and the silicon content in the leaves. Doses up to 300 kg K₂O ha⁻¹ increase the biometric factors of production. High doses of K₂O reduce gas exchange and water use efficiency, and the application of calcium silicate in the soil attenuates these effects.

Keywords: Abiotic stress; photosynthesis; *Capsicum annuum*; salinization; calcium silicate.

1. INTRODUCTION

Brazil is among the main sweet pepper producing countries [1]. The main sweet pepper producing states in Brazil are Minas Gerais, São Paulo, Ceará, Rio de Janeiro, Espírito Santo and Pernambuco (87% of the total) [2]. It is possible to produce sweet peppers all year round, but it develops better in the summer [3]. Currently, sweet pepper producers

26 have preferred to cultivate this crop in a protected environment, which allows a
27 continuous supply and harvesting in periods of low supply of the product in the market,
28 thus achieving more competitive prices [4].

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30 In the State of São Paulo, in 2018, about 65.800 tons of sweet pepper were produced in
31 2.560 ha⁺ [5]. In the production of vegetables in protected cultivation, it was verified that,
32 after three years of cultivation, many producers do not obtain adequate productivities
33 and quality of the fruits, because there are many problems related to excessive
34 fertilization, leading the soil to an accumulation of salts. The losses suffered by the
35 producers are generated by improper practices of the incorrect management of the
36 fertilization in greenhouse [6]. Therefore, the symptoms of these anomalies in plants
37 under conditions of nutritional imbalance are common, due to the saline stress of the soil
38 solution [3]. Although irrigation water in protected crops is of good quality, the addition of
39 fertilizers, when using the fertigation technique, makes it saline, increasing the risk of soil
40 salinization [7].

41
42 Potassium (K) is a nutrient demanded in great quantity by the culture of the sweet
43 pepper, being the main source used by the producers is potassium ~~chloride, that~~chloride
44 ~~that~~ has high saline index, being one of the main sources of salinization of the soil in
45 cultivation. Potassium sulfate has a salt content equivalent to half of the salt content of
46 potassium chloride, which makes it more suitable for soils with tendency to salinization
47 [8].

48
49 The exogenous application of silicon (Si) significantly improves the development of
50 plants under conditions of salt stress [9]. Calcium silicate can be used as a corrective of
51 soil acidity, neutralizing exchangeable aluminum, providing nutrients to the plant and
52 increasing soil base saturation [10]. When saline stress occurs, there is a decrease in
53 the relative water content in the leaf, indicating that the plants are exposed to osmotic
54 stress [11]. Studies have shown that Si increases the relative water content in plants
55 under conditions of salt stress [12], decreasing the toxicity of the salts to the plant and
56 improving its growth [13], increasing the thickness of the leaves, due to deposition of Si,
57 which reduces transpiration and decreases water loss [14].

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59 Due to the condition of soil salinization, nutritional disorders may occur, inducing
60 antagonistic relationships between nutrients in the plant, which significantly reduces crop
61 yields [15]. Elevation of K content in soil can induce nutritional imbalance for plants [16].
62 However, it is necessary to know the effects of the interactions between saline stress
63 and the use of silicon in the culture of sweet pepper that has been cultivated in protected
64 culture.

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66 The objective of this work was to investigate the effect of calcium silicate on gaseous
67 exchanges and production factors in the sweet pepper, cultivated under conditions of soil
68 salinity induced by potassium fertilization, in protected cultivation.

69 2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

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72 The experiment was conducted in the sector of Olericultura and Experimentation of the
73 course of Agronomy from October 12, 2018 to February 2019 in greenhouse. A
74 protective structure model was used, with 225 meters each (9 meters wide by 25 meters
75 long) and right foot of 4 meters. The structure was covered with agrofilm, of blue color.
76 The sweet pepper cultivar Magali R. was used. The seedlings were produced in trays
77 with 128 cells, 6.0 to 6.2 cm high, with substrate composed of inert material and free of
78 pathogens. Transplanting was carried out on November 20, 2018 using a seedling per
79 pot, when they had three to four definitive leaves, which occurred around 35 days after
80 sowing.

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82 The experiment was arranged in a randomized complete block design in a 2 × 5 factorial
83 scheme (two sources of correction: dolomitic limestone and silicon and five increasing
84 doses of KCl equivalent to 150, 300, 450, 600 and 700 kg ha⁻¹ of K₂O. It was applied
85 1.62 ha⁻¹ Mg of dolomite limestone with 80 % total neutralizing power (45 % CaO and
86 10% MgO) corresponding to 15.39 g pot and 1.87 Mg ha⁻¹ of calcium silicate with total
87 neutralizing power 86% (40.7% SiO₂ and 10% CaO) corresponding to 17.85 g by pot, the
88 source CaSiO₃ used was reagent pure for analysis. Whose treatments and potency
89 equivalence are described in Table 1. Each experimental unit consisted of a 19 dm⁻³
90 polyethylene pot filled with Oxisol [17], after incubation of limestone and calcium silicate,
91 fertilization was per-formed for the macro and micronutrients following the
92 recommendation of [18] and [19] adapted for experiments conducted in pots and for the
93 corn crop.

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95 The soil was classified as Oxisol [20] and samples were collected at a depth of 0-20 cm.
96 The samples were placed to dry, crushed through a 5-mm sieve and mixed to describe
97 the chemical and physical compositions. Chemical and physical compositions of the soil
98 used in this study, according to [21], were: pH in water (1:2.5)= 5.2; level of organic
99 matter (OM)= 1.42 (dag kg⁻¹); P and K by Mehlich I extraction = 3.69 and 30.41 (mg dm⁻³)
100 ³); Mg, Ca and Al extractable by 1 M KCl solution= 7.59, 1.12 and 0.20 (cmol dm⁻³); Si=
101 3.29 (mg dm⁻³); Zn= 1.05 (mg dm⁻³); Cu= 1.38 (mg dm⁻³); S= 13.24 (mg dm⁻³); B= 0.07
102 (mg dm⁻³); Fe= 53.62 (mg dm⁻³); T = cation exchange capacity at pH 7.0 (3.62 %); t=
103 cation exchange capacity effective (5.02 %); m = aluminum saturation index (12.50 %); V
104 = Base saturation index (27.85 %). Soil granulometry was the soil physical composition
105 used in this study, determined by the pipette method (sand, silt and Clay = 60 %, 11 %
106 and 29 %). After incubation of limestone and calcium silicate, fertilization was performed
107 for macro and micro-nutrients following the recommendation of [18] and [19] adapted for
108 experiments conducted in pots for sweet pepper crops. The soil chemical analysis was
109 done at the soil science laboratory of the Federal University of Lavras, Brazil. The pots
110 had holes in the bottom where a layer of 0.30 m of folded sombrite was placed to avoid
111 soil loss and to allow drainage of excess water, if it occurred.

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113 Before the transplanting of the crop, 300 mg dm⁻³ of urea (45 % N), 300 mg dm⁻³ of
114 simple superphosphate (18 % P₂O₅) was applied and incorporated into the soil, pure
115 reagent was used for analysis for both fertilizers. The calculations for soil correction were
116 based on recommendations [18]. For N, the equivalent of 12.22 g of urea per pot was
117 divided into three applications and, for P₂O₅, 72.52 g of simple superphosphate per pot
118 applied at planting was used. Coating fertilizations started at 15 days after transplant
119 (DAT) and were performed biweekly. The basic fertilization for K₂O was made with KCl
120 using pure reagent source for analysis (60 % K₂O), as described in Table 1. After the
121 application of the fertilizer, the soil was moistened for 35 days to favor the chemical
122 reaction of the corrective and fertilizer. The pots were distributed at spacing of 0.63 m
123 between plants and 1.0 m between rows.

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136 **Table 1. Treatments and equivalence in pots based on the two correctives**
137 **(calcium silicate and dolomitic limestone) and doses of K₂O.**
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Treatments	Corrective		K ₂ O doses kg ha ⁻¹ of K ₂ O	
T1	Calcium silicate	-	150	-
T2	Calcium silicate	-	300	-
T3	Calcium silicate	-	450	-
T4	Calcium silicate	-	600	-
T5	Calcium silicate	-	700	-
T6	-	Calcário	-	150
T7	-	Calcário	-	300
T8	-	Calcário	-	450
T9	-	Calcário	-	600
T10	-	Calcário	-	700

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140 The water characterization of the soil was determined by its water retention
 141 characteristic curve (Fig.1). The parameters of the soil water retention curve used in
 142 irrigation ~~irrigation~~ and irrigation management were obtained based on the model
 143 proposed by [22], with the aid of the Solver application of Microsoft Office Excel®
 144 software ($\theta = 0.4215 \times [1 + (0.2040 \times |\Psi_m|)^{1.8757}]^{-0.4669} + 0.2670$), where: θ = current
 145 moisture cm³.cm⁻³ and Ψ_m = stress, kPa. The field capacity was estimated to be
 146 equivalent to the voltage and humidity at the inflection point of the retention curve, as
 147 proposed by [23]: $\Psi_m = 1 / \alpha [1 / m]^{1/n}$, where: Ψ_m = tension at the inflection point of
 148 the curve, kPa; α , m and n = adjustment parameters of the model equation proposed by
 149 [22]. The moisture value in the field capacity found was 0.3458 cm³.cm⁻³ for a voltage of
 150 4.25. Soil moisture was determined through tensiometers, using the water potential of -
 151 35 kPa, considered as adequate for the development of the crop [24].

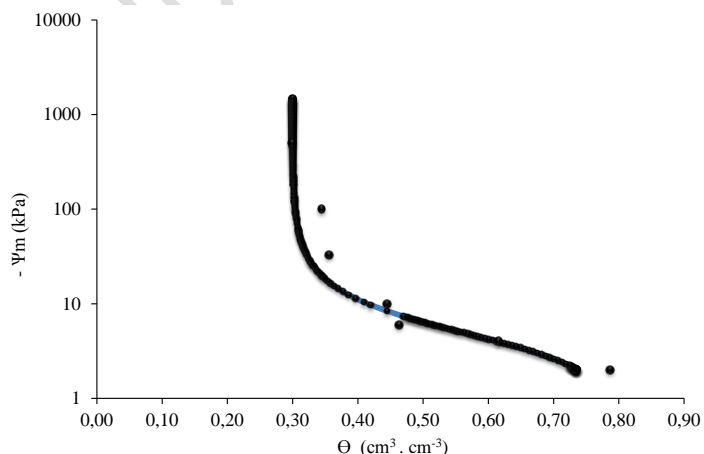
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153 The irrigation was done by drip irrigation; the self-compensating emitters being manually
 154 inserted in polyethylene hoses. The calculation of the operating time of the irrigation
 155 system was made based on the humidity sensors (tensiometers) installed in the depth of
 156 0.15 m. With the observed stresses, the corresponding moisture values were estimated
 157 from the water retention curve in the soil.

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159 With these moistures and the one corresponding to -30 kPa [19] and, considering the
 160 effective depth of the root system (0.15 m), the net and gross replacement slides were
 161 calculated for the treatments. Aiming at the replacement of soil water, two readings were
 162 performed daily in the tensiometers, one in the morning (8:00 am) and one in the
 163 afternoon (14:00 pm).

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Fig. 1. Water retention characteristic curve of the Oxisol used in the experiment.

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At the end of the experiment, the electrical conductivity (EC) was determined in the saturated paste extract [25], which is the method used as reference for EC determination and adopted in various regions of the world. To do so, the soil passed through the 2 mm sieve and allowed to stand for 24 h to air dry. Afterwards, 800 g of soil were added in plastic containers, with capacity for 1200 mL, with 500 mL of distilled water added. After the mixture turned into a paste, the container was covered with foil remaining for 24 h. After this time, the slurry was again stirred, standing for 1 h. By means of the vacuum filtration of the saturation paste, the solution of the soil was extracted, after which the EC reading was measured. The electrical conductivity of the saturated pulp was corrected considering the soil water retention characteristic using a digital conductivity meter (Lutron, model CD-4303).

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For the quantification of the silicon in the soil, soil samples were taken from the pots grown with sweet pepper and prepared for analysis. The samples were dried at room temperature (TFSA) and subsequently sieved (<2,0 mm). The extraction procedure was performed to maintain the same soil: solution ratio, that is, for each 10 g of soil, 100 mL of extractor was added. The extractors used were: Acetic acid 0,5 mol L⁻¹ [26]: 100 mL of 0.5 mol L⁻¹ acetic acid was added to a 150 mL plastic flask containing 10 g de soil. The plastic bottle was capped and shaken horizontally for one hour. After 30 minutes, the extract was filtered (plastic funnel), using filter paper number 42; Buffer pH 4.0: 100 mL of a buffered solution at pH 4.0 acetic acid plus sodium acetate (49.2 mL of concentrated acetic acid and 14.800 g of anhydrous sodium acetate were dissolved in 1,0 liter of distilled water, and the pH adjusted to 4.0 with the addition of acetic acid) were added in a 150 mL plastic flask with 10 g soil and shaken horizontally for one hour. The vials were then held for 30 minutes and then the plastic funnel extract and filter paper number 42 filtered; Calcium chloride 0.0025 mol L⁻¹ [27]: 100 mL of a 0.0025 mol L⁻¹ calcium chloride solution was added in a plastic flask containing 10 g of soil. Thereafter, it was shaken horizontally for 15 minutes and then decanted from overnight. The following day, the extracts were filtered (plastic funnel and filter paper number 42); Water: 100 mL of distilled and demineralized water were added in 150 mL plastic bottles with 10 g of soil. Henceforth, the procedure was the same as for acetic acid.

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The determination of Si in the extract was made by mixing 10 mL of the extract (filtrate / decanting) in 1 mL of sulfo-molybdenum 7.5% solution (7.5 g ammonium molybdate in 10 mL + ac. sulfuric 9 mol L⁻¹ in 100 mL). After 10 minutes 2 mL of the 20% tartaric acid solution was added and after 5 minutes 10 mL of the 0.3% ascorbic acid solution was added. After one hour, the Si was read in a spectrophotometer and at the wavelength of 660nm. The quantification of silicon in the leaves was performed by the colorimetric method of molybdenum blue in the laboratory of mineral nutrition of plants in the Laboratory of Mineral Nutrition of Plants of the Federal University of Uberlandia, Brazil [28].

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The shoot dry matter (leaves + stem) was collected at 120 days after transplanting (DAT), to determine dry shoot mass (MMSPA). To dry the material an oven was used at 70 °C with forced ventilation until constant mass was reached. The shoot + stem was processed together. The heights of the plants (m) were evaluated with the help of a scale, measuring the distance between the base of the plant collar to the end of the main stem, the production, which was determined throughout the reproductive stage of the plants, and also the diameter, length, weight and diameter of commercial fruits.

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For the analysis of liquid photosynthesis, stomatal conductance, intercellular CO₂ concentration, transpiration, water use efficiency and instantaneous carboxylation efficiency, the IRGA model LI-6400XT, (Li-Cor, Lincoln, Nebraska, USA) was used. Two plants of each cultivar were chosen randomly, being defined as the sample unit the sixth

223 leaf from top to bottom, fully expanded and mature. Because it is a species with a
224 composite leaf, the first three leaflets of each leaf were used to measure, totaling six
225 measurements. The value of $850 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ of saturation irradiance, defined by the
226 realization of a light curve, was set using the value of radiation that induced the
227 maximum photosynthesis. Sweet pepper is a C3 plant, where a cyclic mechanism of
228 enzymatic reactions converts CO_2 into carbohydrates through the reductive
229 photosynthetic cycle (C3), generating the 3 phosphoglycerate. Therefore, IRGA camera
230 temperature was controlled at $28 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, since in C3 plants the maximum rate of
231 photosynthesis is reached at relatively low radiation intensity, causing no destruction or
232 damage to the photosynthetic apparatus. Measurements were performed on a 6 cm^2
233 sheet area.

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235 The results found in the different evaluations were submitted to analysis of variance. For
236 the evaluation of the means, the Scott-Knott or t-test were applied, according to the
237 theories recommended by [29]. The standard deviations were calculated and the
238 correlation estimators (Pearson or Spearman) were used, using SISVAR software [30].

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240 **3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

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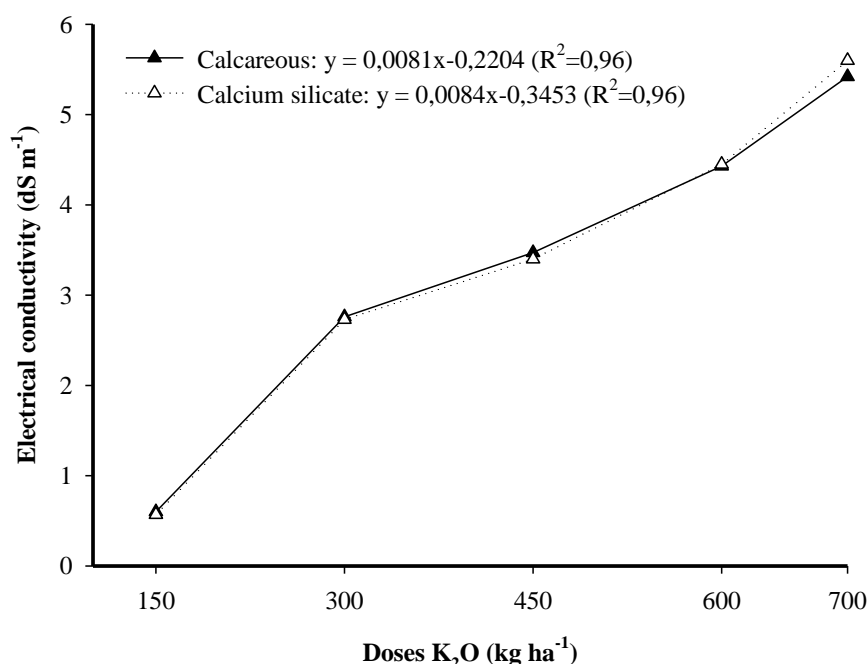
242 The electrical conductivity (EC) of the soil (Fig. 2) increased with increasing doses of
243 K_2O in both correctives (calcium silicate and dolomitic limestone). The EC of 2.76 and
244 2.16 dS m^{-1} were the ones that provided the greatest vegetative development and
245 production, these results agree with those found by [31], who studied the influence of EC
246 on eggplant concluded that the EC of 2.36 dS m^{-1} provided the greatest development
247 and fruiting. The higher dry matter yield of roots, stems, leaves and fruits in eggplant
248 plants was obtained with EC of nutrient solution of 2.10 dS m^{-1} [32]. The use of a dose
249 greater than 60 kg ha^{-1} of K_2O may cause some damage to the legumes due to its saline
250 effect, which may have occurred in this experiment with doses greater than 100 kg ha^{-1} of
251 K_2O [33]. The electrical conductivity increased linearly with the increase of the KCl dose
252 applied in two sources of potassium fertilization, due to the increase of the electrolytic
253 concentration of the soil solution, which is proportional to the increase in the
254 concentration of ions in the solution [34].

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260 **Fig. 2. Electrical conductivity of the soil as a function of the K₂O doses and**
261 **sources of correctives (calcium silicate and dolomitic limestone).**
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264 The concentration of Si in the soil did not vary in the different doses of K₂O studied when
265 calcium or calcium silicate was applied (Table 2). However, in the interaction between
266 the doses of K₂O x sources of correctives it was observed that the silicon concentration
267 was higher for the treatment using calcium silicate, due to the fact that it is a soluble
268 source of Si.
269

270 **Table 2. Soil silicon content in CaCl₂ 0.01 mol L⁻¹ as a function of K₂O doses and**
271 **corrective sources (dolomitic limestone and calcium silicate).**
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K ₂ O doses (kg ha ⁻¹)	Calcium silicate	Dolomitic limestone
	Content tho Si (mg kg ⁻¹)	
150	6.00 Aa	5.00 Ab
300	5.70 Aa	5.00 Ab
450	5.80 Aa	4.80 Ab
600	5.75 Aa	5.00 Ab
700	6.00 Aa	5.20 Ab

273 *Capital letters equal in the column, do not differ at the level of significance of 5%; Minor letter in*
274 *the same line, do not differ at the level of significance of 5%.*
275

276 For the silicon content in the sweet pepper leaf (Table 3) differences were observed
277 between the doses of K₂O. When the calcium silicate was applied, the highest levels
278 were found with 600 and 700 kg ha⁻¹ K₂O. As for the interaction between the correctives
279 (calcium silicate x dolomitic limestone), independent of the K₂O dose, the higher silicon
280 contents were found when calcium silicate was applied.

281 **Table 3. Silicon content in the leaf (%) as a function of K₂O doses and corrective**
 282 **sources (dolomitic limestone and calcium silicate).**
 283

K ₂ O doses (kg ha ⁻¹)	Calcium silicate Content tho Si (%)	Dolomitic limestone
150	13 Ca	12 Ab
300	14 Ca	12 Ab
450	18 Ba	13 Ab
600	20 Aa	13 Ab
700	20 Aa	14 Ab

284 *Capital letters equal in the column, do not differ at the level of significance of 5%; Minor letter in*
 285 *the same line, do not differ at the level of significance of 5%.*

286

287 With increasing doses of K₂O in the soil there was a tendency of reduction in the liquid
 288 photosynthesis (Fig. 3A), transpiration (Fig. 3B), stomatal conductance (Fig. 3C),
 289 intercellular CO₂ concentration (Fig. 3D), water use efficiency (Fig. 3E) and
 290 instantaneous carboxylation efficiency (Fig. 3F), in the presence and absence of calcium
 291 silicate. However, it was observed that with the application of calcium silicate all these
 292 variables presented higher values. The deposition of silicon in plant tissues improves the
 293 interception of light and decreases transpiration [35]. Increased availability of Si favors
 294 increased productivity, since Si can act indirectly in photosynthetic and biochemical
 295 processes, especially when the plant is subjected to some type of stress [36]. The
 296 translocation of silicon from the roots to the aerial part of plants may be related to the
 297 increase in photosynthetic capacity, greater resistance to possible damage and
 298 reduction in the evapotranspiration process, which, consequently, improves the use of
 299 available water in the soil [37].

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301 The increase in CO₂ concentration inside leaves promotes the closure of stomata, which
 302 may occur in response to abiotic stress [38]. This CO₂ concentration may be directly
 303 related to the increase in transpiration, which was greater than 0,006 mmol H₂O m⁻²s⁻¹
 304 (Fig. 3B). According to [39], the increase in resistance to gas diffusion can be a limiting
 305 factor in the CO₂ assimilation rate. The increase in transpiration by plants is mainly due
 306 to the inability of some plants to absorb enough water to replenish that consumed in the
 307 transpiration process [40], and the loss of water by plants is regulated by the activity of
 308 the guard cells [41]. As temperature rises, relative air humidity decreases and responses
 309 of metabolic processes in plants will reflect the interaction between transpiration and
 310 guard cell activities [42].

311

312 The efficiency in the use of water by sweet pepper plants demonstrates a relationship
 313 between photosynthesis and transpiration in which the observed values are directly
 314 related to the amount of carbon that the plant fixes for each unit of water it loses [43]. In
 315 this sense, decreases observed in water use efficiency (Fig. 3E) are reflective of
 316 increases in the rate of carbon dioxide assimilation and transpiration of plants. As for the
 317 instantaneous efficiency of carboxylation (Fig. 3F).

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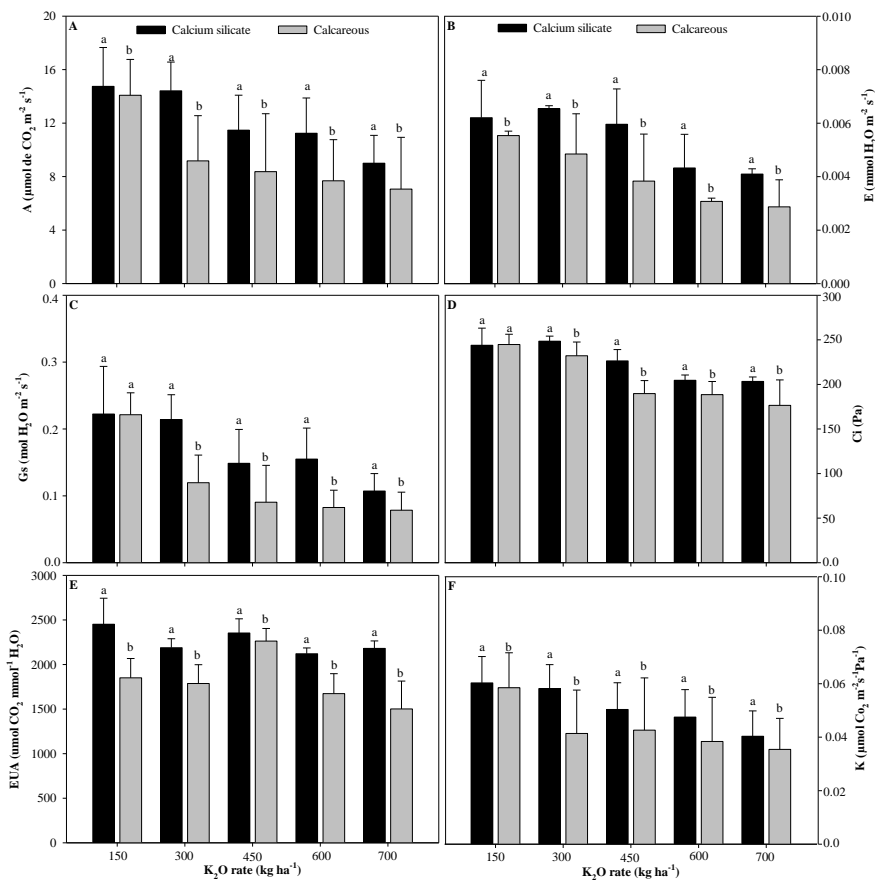
319 The results obtained in this work indicate that the increase in the instantaneous
 320 efficiency of carboxylation is related to the increase in the concentration of CO₂ and to
 321 the gains related to the rate of assimilation of CO₂. [44] pointPoint out that this efficiency
 322 is related to the intercellular CO₂ concentration and the rate of assimilation of CO₂. The
 323 CO₂ assimilation from the external environment promotes water loss, which restricts CO₂
 324 entry [41]. The gas exchanges, according to [45], are influenced by climatic conditions,
 325 so the reduction in the efficiency of water use may be related to the increase of solar
 326 radiation, temperature and relative humidity. [46], found a mean value of 0.28 mol of H₂O
 327 m⁻²s⁻¹ for stomatal conductance in sweet pepper plants cultivated in protected
 328 environment, which is in agreement with the observed in this work (Fig. 3C).

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330 It is noteworthy that the stomatal behavior determines the transpiratory requirement of
 331 the plants, thus controlling the loss of water in the form of vapor [47]. Although Si is not
 332 considered an essential element for plants, studies show that its application to the soil
 333 contributes to the growth and increase of productivity [48], as can be observed in this
 334 work (Table 3). In saline stress conditions, the plant growth is compromised due to the
 335 reduction of the osmotic potential of the soil solution, which reduces the water potential
 336 of the plants [49]. According to [50], this reduction of the water potential of the plants can
 337 be mitigated by the application of Si, which reduces the toxicity caused by excess
 338 sodium chloride in the soil solution.

340 The use of calcium silicates in the soil provides significant responses of the crops in the
 341 increase of the contents and P and in the reduction of the heavy metal content, resulting
 342 in a greater productive stability [51].



343 **Fig. 3. Liquid photosynthesis (A), transpiration (B), stomatal conductance (C),**
 344 **intercellular CO₂ concentration (D), water use efficiency (E) and instantaneous**
 345 **efficiency of carboxylation (F) as a function of presence and absence of calcium**
 346 **silicate and doses of K₂O.**
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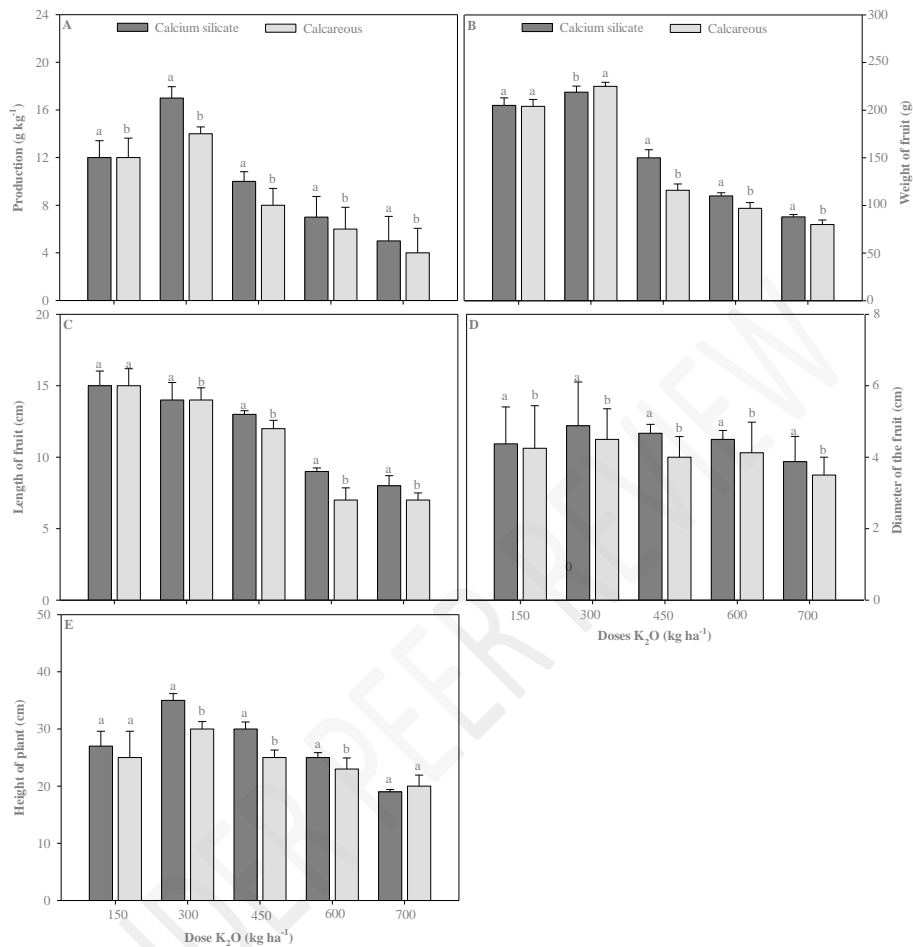
349 The production and weight of sweet pepper fruits were higher when the 150 kg K₂O dose
 350 was applied in the presence and absence of calcium silicate (Fig. 4A and 4B). Higher
 351 doses of K₂O reduced chili fruit production (Fig. 4A) and caused a significant decrease
 352 in plant height (Fig. 4E). There was a reduction in the length of the chili fruits when the

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353 K₂O doses increased, in the presence and absence of calcium silicate (Fig. 4C). The
354 application of calcium silicate favored the increase of the diameter of the fruits in the
355 doses of K₂O studied (Fig. 4D). The beneficial effects of Si on the growth have been
356 reported in a wide of plant species, which are characterized by protecting the plant from
357 various biotic and abiotic stresses [52]. Transporters responsible for Si unloading from
358 xylem in leaves also have been identified in many plant species [53]. The aerial plant
359 parts accumulate more Si than roots [54]. Deposition of Si takes place in different parts
360 of plant such as epidermis of shoots but can also occur in the cell wall of root
361 endodermis [14]. However, phytoliths formation, composition, and localization vary
362 among plant species [55].

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364 The dose of 150 Kg K₂O favored the growth of sweet pepper plants in the presence of
365 calcium silicate. In Fig. 4C it is observed that, as increasing doses of K₂O were applied,
366 there was reduction in fruit length, as observed by [56]. Under conditions of higher
367 salinity and osmotic pressure of the soil solution the absorption of water from the root
368 cells decreases, allowing the occurrence of ionic toxicity. The addition of 16.6 g KCl m⁻²
369 reduced root yield and P uptake by sweet pepper plants cultivated on an Oxisol with 24.0
370 g dm⁻³ of organic matter [6] in addition, [57] reported that high salinity promotes changes
371 in photosynthesis (CO₂ assimilation, stomatal conductance and leaf transpiration), thus
372 inhibiting plant growth and reducing its height, as shown in Fig. 4E.
373

UNDER PEER REVIEW



374
375 **Fig. 4. Production (A), fruit weight (B), fruit length (C), fruit diameter (D) and plant**
376 **height (E) as a function of the presence and absence of calcium silicate and K_2O**
377 **doses.**

378 4. CONCLUSION

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380 It is concluded that, in the culture of sweet pepper in protected cultivation, the increase in
381 the rates of potassium fertilization increases the electrical conductivity of the soil and the
382 silicon content in the leaves. Doses up to 300 $kg\ K_2O\ ha^{-1}$ increase the biometric factors
383 of production. High doses of K_2O reduce gas exchange and water use efficiency, and the
384 application of calcium silicate in the soil attenuates these effects.
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386 387 COMPETING INTERESTS

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389 We declared that no competing interests exist.
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393 **CONSENT**

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395 It is not applicable.

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397 **ETHICAL APPROVAL**

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399 It is not applicable.

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